

Lecture 14

Mobius Inversion Formula, Zeta Functions

Recall:

Mobius function $\mu(n)$ and other functions

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{\omega(n)} & \text{if } n \text{ is squarefree} \\ 0 & \text{if } n \text{ is not squarefree} \end{cases}$$

$\omega(n)$ = number of primes dividing n

$$U(n) = 1 \forall n$$

$$\mathbb{1}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 1 \\ 0 & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\mu * U = U * \mu = \mathbb{1}$$

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 1 \\ 0 & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Theorem 54. Let f be an arithmetic function, and $F = f * U$, so that $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)$. Then $f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)F(\frac{n}{d}) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(\frac{n}{d})F(d)$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} F &= f * U \\ F * \mu &= (f * U) * \mu \\ &= f * (U * \mu) \\ &= f * \mathbb{1} = f \end{aligned}$$

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Theorem 55. If f and F are arithmetic functions and $f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d)F(\frac{n}{d})$ for all n , then $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)$ for all n

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} f &= \mu * F \\ &= F * \mu \\ f * U &= F \end{aligned}$$

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Showed last time that $\phi * U = r_1$ (Recall that $r_1(n) = n^1$ and $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$), and so Möbius inversion says that

$$\phi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \frac{n}{d} = n \sum_{d|n} \frac{\mu(d)}{d}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n &= p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r} \\ &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1} \cdots - \frac{1}{p_r} + \frac{1}{p_1 p_2} + \frac{1}{p_1 p_3} \cdots + \frac{1}{p_{r-1} p_r} - \frac{1}{p_1 p_2 p_3} \cdots + \frac{(-1)^r}{p_1 \cdots p_r} \right) \\ &= n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2} \right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r} \right) \\ &= n \prod_{r|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Eg. There are 100 consecutive doors in a castle that are all closed. Person 1 opens all doors, person n changes state of every n th door, starting with door number n . At the end, which doors will be open? Door number n changes state $d(n)$ number of times at the end, door n open if $d(n)$ is odd.

$$\begin{aligned} n &= p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r} \\ d(n) &= (e_1 + 1)(e_2 + 1) \cdots (e_r + 1) \end{aligned}$$

$d(n)$ odd if all e are even \Rightarrow at the end, open doors are 1, 4, 9, 16, ...

Eg. Describe the arithmetic function $\mu * \mu$ - ie., given $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$, what is $(\mu * \mu)(n)$.

Since $\mu * \mu$ is multiplicative, it is enough to know it for a prime power p^e .

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu * \mu)(n) &= \sum_{d|p^e} \mu(d) \mu\left(\frac{p^e}{d}\right) \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq i \leq e} \mu(p^i) \mu(p^{e-i}) \\ &= \mu(p^e) + \mu(p) \mu(p^{e-1}) + \mu(p^2) \mu(p^{e-2}) + \cdots + \mu(p^{e-1}) \mu(p) + \mu(p^e) \end{aligned}$$

Claim that if $e \geq 3$, then $(\mu * \mu)(p^e) = 0$ because for $0 \leq i \leq e$, since $i + (e - i) = e \geq 3$, one is ≥ 2 so $\mu(p^i)$ or $\mu(p^{e-i})$ is 0, so all terms vanish.

$$\begin{aligned}
e = 0 \quad & (\mu * \mu)(1) & = \mu(1)\mu(1) = 1 \\
e = 1 \quad & (\mu * \mu)(p) & = \mu(p) + \mu(p) = -2 \\
e = 2 \quad & (\mu * \mu)(p^2) & = \mu(p^2) + \mu(p)\mu(p) + \mu(p^2) = 1
\end{aligned}$$

$$(\mu * \mu)(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \sum e_i \geq 3 \\ \prod_{i=1}^r \begin{cases} -2 & e_1 = 1 \\ 1 & e_1 = 2 \end{cases} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(0 unless n is cube-free)

Conjecture 56 (Mertens Conjecture). *Consider the function $M(n) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} \mu(k)$ - how fast does this grow?*

Mertens and Stieltjes independently conjectured that $|M(n)| < \sqrt{n}$, which would imply the Riemann Hypothesis. The claim that

$$\text{for every } \varepsilon > 0, \quad \frac{M(n)}{n^{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon}} \Rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \Rightarrow \infty$$

is equivalent to Riemann Hypothesis.

The strong form was disproved in 1985.

The idea is that $M(n)$ is a sum of ± 1 or 0 terms, expect massive cancelation. If we looked at $\sum \mu(k)$ of only squarefree k only divisible by primes $\leq n$, this sum would be

$$(1 + \mu(2))(1 + \mu(3)) \dots (1 + \mu(\phi_k)) = (1 - 1)(1 - 1) \dots = 0$$

However, this sum includes a lot more integers than just $1 \dots n$

Zeta Functions - analogue of a generating function.

Suppose we have sequence $a_0, a_1 \dots$ indexed by positive integers. We introduce **generating function**

$$A(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

Can think of $x \in \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C} close to 0, if a_n 's don't grow too fast, will converge to a function of x in some small region around 0.

Eg. $a_0, a_1, \dots = 1$ then

$$A(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

Eg. $a_n = 2^n + 1 = 2, 3, 5, 9, 17, \dots$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum a_n x^n &= \sum (1 + 2^n) x^n \\ &= \sum x^n + \sum (2x)^n \\ &= \frac{1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1-2x} \end{aligned}$$

We're interested in multiplicative structure, we'll use a different kind of generating function. Let $f(n)$ be an arithmetic function, s a formal variable - eg, $s \in \mathbb{C}$. Define

$$Z(f, s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{f(n)}{n^s}$$

It does make sense to talk about when it converges, note that if $f(n)$ doesn't grow too fast, say $|f(n)| \leq n^m$ for some constant m , then sum converges for $\Re(s) > m + 1$ (because $|\frac{f(n)}{n^s}| < n^{-(1+\varepsilon)}$)

Eg. One of the simplest arithmetic functions is $U(n) = 1 \forall n$. Then

$$Z(U, s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^s} = \zeta(s)$$

which is called the **Riemann Zeta Function**. Tightly connected with distribution of prime numbers. $\zeta(s)$ has an Euler Product. First,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^2} &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \frac{1}{8^s} \dots\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{9^s} \dots\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{5^s} \dots\right) \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2^s}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3^s}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{5^s}} \dots \\ \zeta(s) &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - p^{-s})^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

This factorization is called an Euler Product

Eg. $\mathbb{1}$ is even simpler

$$Z(\mathbb{1}, s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\mathbb{1}(n)}{n^s} = 1$$

Eg.

$$\begin{aligned}
\zeta(s)^{-1} &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - p^{-s}) \\
&= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{\mu(n)}{n^s} \\
&= Z(\mu, s) \\
\text{Note } Z(f * g, s) &= Z(f, s)Z(g, s) \\
&\Rightarrow 1 = Z(\mathbb{1}, s) \\
&= \underbrace{Z(U, s)}_{\zeta(s)} Z(\mu, s)
\end{aligned}$$

In general, if $f(n)$ is multiplicative, then

$$\begin{aligned}
Z(f, s) &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{f(n)}{n^s} \\
&= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \left(1 + \frac{f(p)}{p^s} + \frac{f(p^2)}{p^{2s}} + \frac{f(p^3)}{p^{3s}} \dots \right)
\end{aligned}$$

and if f is completely multiplicative then $f(p^e) = f(p)^e$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
Z(f, s) &= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{f(p)}{p^s}} \\
&= \prod_{p \text{ prime}} (1 - f(p)p^{-s})^{-1}
\end{aligned}$$

Some neat facts:

1.

$$\zeta(2) = \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

"Proof". Use

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\sin x}{x} &= \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{\pi^2} \right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{4\pi^2} \right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{9\pi^2} \right) \dots \\
\sin x &= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} \dots \\
\frac{\sin x}{x} &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} \dots
\end{aligned}$$

so

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} \dots = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{\pi^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{4\pi^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{9\pi^2}\right) \dots$$

Look at coefficient of x^2 :

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{6} &= -\frac{1}{\pi^2} - \frac{1}{4\pi^2} - \frac{1}{9\pi^2} \dots \\ \frac{\pi^2}{6} &= \sum \frac{1}{n^2} \end{aligned}$$

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2. Look at coefficient of x^4 to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{120} &= \frac{1}{\pi^4} \sum_{0 < i < j} \frac{1}{i^2 j^2} \\ \sum_{0 < i < j} \frac{1}{i^2 j^2} &= \frac{\pi^4}{120} \end{aligned}$$

Adding $\zeta(4) = \sum \frac{1}{i^4}$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum \frac{1}{i^4} + 2 \sum \frac{1}{i^2 j^2} &= \zeta(4) + \frac{\pi^4}{60} \\ \sum \frac{1}{i^4} + 2 \sum \frac{1}{i^2 j^2} &= \left(\sum \frac{1}{i^2}\right)^2 = \zeta(2)^2 \\ \zeta(4) + \frac{\pi^4}{60} &= \left(\frac{\pi^2}{6}\right)^2 = \frac{\pi^4}{36} \\ \zeta(4) &= \frac{\pi^4}{90} \end{aligned}$$

3. Probability of a random number being squarefree:

$$\frac{\text{number of squarefree integers} \leq x}{x} \rightarrow \frac{6}{\pi^2} \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

"Proof".

$$\begin{aligned} \zeta(2) &= \frac{\pi^2}{6} \\ &= \prod_p \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{p^2}} \\ \Rightarrow \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) &= \frac{6}{\pi^2} \end{aligned}$$

Probability that random number divisible by $p^2 \approx \frac{1}{p^2}$, probability not $\approx 1 - \frac{1}{p^2}$.
With "independence" $\Rightarrow \prod_p \left(1 - \frac{1}{p^2}\right) = \frac{6}{\pi^2}$ ■

4. Probability that 2 random integers are coprime is $\frac{6}{\pi^2}$
5. Probability that 4 integers a, b, c, d satisfy $(a, b) = (c, d)$ is 40%

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